CAMPAIGN PLANNING: AN EFFECTIVE CONCEPT FOR MILITARY OPERATIONS OTHER THAN WAR

A MONOGRAPH
BY
Major Thomas S. James, Jr.
Armor

MENS EST CLAVIS VICTORIAE

School of Advanced Military Studies
United States Army Command and General Staff
College
Fort Leavenworth, Kansas

SECOND TERM AY 96-97

19971107 012

2

REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE

Form Approved
OMB No. 0704-0188

1. AGENCY USE ONLY (Leave blank)	2. REPORT DATE 22 MAY 97	3. REPORT TYPE AND DATES COVERED MONOGRAPH

4. TITLE AND SUBTITLE
CAMPAIGN PLANNING: AN EFFECTIVE CONCEPT FOR MILITARY OPERATIONS OTHER THAN WAR

5. FUNDING NUMBERS

6. AUTHOR(S)
THOMAS S. JAMES, JR.

7. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES)
School of Advanced Military Studies
Command and General Staff College
Fort Leavenworth, Kansas 66027

8. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBER

9. SPONSORING / MONITORING AGENCY NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES)
Command and General Staff College
Fort Leavenworth, Kansas 66027

10. SPONSORING / MONITORING AGENCY REPORT NUMBER

11. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES

12a. DISTRIBUTION / AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

APPROVED FOR PUBLIC RELEASE:
DISTRIBUTION UNLIMITED.

12b. DISTRIBUTION CODE

13. ABSTRACT (Maximum 200 words)
SEE ATTACHED

DTIC QUALITY INSPECTED 4

14. SUBJECT TERMS
CAMPAIGN PLANNING
MILITARY OPERATIONS OTHER THAN WAR

15. NUMBER OF PAGES
70

16. PRICE CODE

17. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF REPORT UNCLASSIFIED	18. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE UNCLASSIFIED	19. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF ABSTRACT UNCLASSIFIED	20. LIMITATION OF ABSTRACT UNLIMITED
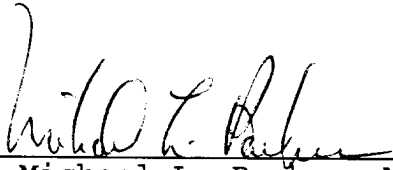
SCHOOL OF ADVANCED MILITARY STUDIES

MONOGRAPH APPROVAL

<u>Major Thomas S. James, Jr.</u>
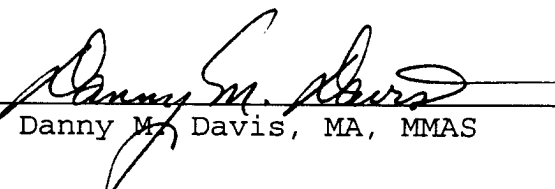
Title of Monograph: *Campaign Planning: An Effective Concept for Military Operations Other Than War*

Approved by:
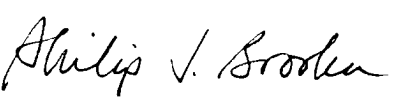
_____ Monograph Director
LTC Michael L. Parker, MMAS

_____ Director, School of
COL Danny M. Davis, MA, MMAS   Advanced Military
                                       Studies

_____ Director, Graduate
Philip J. Brookes, Ph.D.   Degree Program

Accepted this 22d Day of May 1997

ABSTRACT

CAMPAIGN PLANNING: AN EFFECTIVE CONCEPT FOR MILITARY OPERATIONS OTHER THAN WAR, MAJ Thomas S. James, Jr., USA, 67 pages.

This monograph examines current campaign planning doctrine to determine adequacy in preparing for military operations other than war. Based on the end of the Cold War, military operations have expanded to meet diverse requirements. Joint doctrine categorizes the range of military operations as conventional war or military operations other than war. War is the large scale employment of military force in sustained combat to achieve victory. Military operations other than war focus on deterring war and promoting peace. Joint and service campaign planning doctrine focus on war but recent publications expound on the unique planning characteristics associated with military operations other than war.

This monograph first looks at campaign planning doctrine, specifically the fundamentals of campaign planning according to Joint Publication 3-0, *Doctrine For Joint Operations*. It then examines the potential threat and environment associated with the evolving international situation. The paper then develops a historical background using Operation Restore Hope in Somalia and Operation Uphold Democracy in Haiti. These operations provide a foundation for analyzing the fundamentals of campaign planning as they relate to military operations other than war.

The paper organizes these fundamentals in five categories: strategic aims and military objectives; operational intelligence; centers of gravity analysis; commanders' guidance and intent; operational concepts and phasing; and command and control. These categories provide a methodology for analyzing the fundamentals of campaign planning for operations short of war.

The conclusion illustrates that current joint and service campaign planning doctrine adequately cover military operations short of war. Campaign planning doctrine provides a framework and process for developing plans across the spectrum of conflict. This process works effectively in MOOTW as long as commanders and planners understand the differences associated with these environments.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Section I: Introduction

On 5 June 1944, Allied convoys sailed across the English Channel toward the French Coast. Their objective was to liberate France and destroy the German war machine. This joint and combined operation marked the beginning of the largest amphibious landing in history. D-Day, code named Operation Overlord, involved over three million Allied soldiers and thousands of vessels. Artificial ports, towed across the channel, enabled over 40,000 tons of equipment and 6,500 vehicles to be unloaded per week. A pipeline installed across the channel provided critical fuel to these ground forces. [1] Prior to this operation, detailed preparations enhanced operational success.

The United States buildup, in England prior to the invasion, consisted of 1,527,000 troops, including 620,504 ground troops in twenty-one divisions. The massive invasion fleet included 4,400 ships and landing craft which would carry 154,000 troops and 1500 tanks on the initial assault. Accompanying this invasion fleet was an aerial armada of 11,000 fighters, bombers, transports and gliders to provide protection support and supplies. [2] There were forty-seven allied divisions of which twenty-one were American and the remainder were British, Canadian, and Polish. [3] In addition to the combined force, the synchronization of joint operations overwhelmed German defenses.

Air, sea, land, and special operations forces proved invaluable to the campaigns' success. The Allied air offensive achieved air superiority by the spring of 1944, and the strategic air forces wrecked the French transportation network on which the German forces depended. [4] From midnight to dawn of D-Day, 10,500 British and American planes bombed the Normandy coast in preparation for the amphibious assault. Naval

gunfire support effectively destroyed German fortifications, troop concentrations, and land minefields. Concurrently, naval frogmen cleared paths through the intricate array of German obstacles blocking the sea approaches.[5] The First (US) Army and Second (BR) Army conducted the ground assault. Over 27,000 paratroopers landed and secured critical sites in conjunction with the assault. Special operations forces from the United States and Great Britain also conducted direct actions against the Germans in depth.[6]

In addition to the joint and combined force synchronization, the Allied planners chose the Normandy coast over the more obvious Pas de Calais area. This decision assisted in the development of a detailed deception plan to keep the Germans focused on the Calais option. The successful deception plan froze the Fifteenth (GE) Army preventing reinforcement of the actual landing sites.[7]

In the end, the Germans suffered a decisive defeat. The campaign inflicted more than 500,000 German casualties and set the conditions for the allied attack into Germany and eventual defeat of the Wehrmacht.[8]

Operation Overlord was one of the most successful campaigns in history. The campaign included broad strategic concepts, a series of major operations, involved joint and combined forces, complex logistical operations, and a successful deception plan. The campaign plan provided the framework necessary to enhance the synergistic effect of the joint and combined force in order to accomplish the objectives established.

United States joint and service doctrine reflect the lessons learned during Operation Overlord. These principles guided operational level planners in preparation for possible war with the Soviet Union during the Cold War. With the absence of this

major conventional threat, the question remains whether campaign planning applies to the current unconventional threat associated with MOOTW.

Based on the end of the Cold War, military operations have expanded to meet diverse requirements. Joint doctrine categorizes the range of military operations as conventional war or military operations other than war (MOOTW). Joint Publication 3-0, *Doctrine for Joint Operations*, defines war as the large scale employment of military force, in sustained combat, to achieve decisive victory.[9] Military operations other than war focus on deterring war and promoting peace. The distinguishing feature tends to be the type of threat.

The Soviet style force and doctrine, which dominated Cold War planning, no longer dictates the standard threat model. The threat to our national interests are harder to define and more unpredictable. The National Military Strategy identifies four principle dangers which influence the strategic landscape: regional instability; the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction; transnational dangers such as drug trafficking and terrorism; and dangers to democracy and reform. Ethnic, religious, territorial and economic factors bolster these dangers and create a potentially volatile environment which endangers the United States international interests.[10] Military employment, in concert with the other elements of national power, must address operations in this environment.

Joint doctrine identifies the following types of Military Operations Other Than War (MOOTW): arms control, combating terrorism, Department of Defense support to counterdrug operations, nation assistance, noncombatant evacuation operations, civil

support operations, peace operations, and support to insurgencies.[11] These operations are inherently joint, contain military objectives which support strategic ends, employ extensive communications networks, and employ strategic/operational logistics assets. Based on these complex factors military planners must apply operational art to design these operations.

Campaign planning is the doctrinal process developed to translate strategy into operational concepts. A campaign, according to joint doctrine, is a series of related military operations aimed at accomplishing a strategic or operational objective within a given time and space. Campaigns in the traditional sense relate to multiple operations conducted during conventional war.[12] This monograph will assess current joint and US Army doctrine to determine the adequacy of campaign planning when conducting MOOTW.

The monograph flows in the following manner. Section II sets the stage by using current joint and US Army doctrinal publications to define operational art, campaign planning, and MOOTW. This includes defining terms and relating them to planning and execution of campaigns. These terms include key facets of operational art and design, the fundamentals of campaign plans, and MOOTW planning considerations.

Section III, Threat and Environment analysis, focuses on defining the current threat model and environment associated with MOOTW. This includes a synopsis of the current threat based on the National Security Strategy and CINC strategies compiled by the Foreign Military Studies Office. The threat portion concentrates on defining and assessing the current threat model used by military forces. This emerging threat is often

ambiguous, regionally focused, and harbors beliefs and ideas often different than the United States. Clans, terrorists, and belligerent factions threaten stability throughout the world and often impact on United States interests identified in the National Security Strategy.

Section IV, Historical Background, provides a synopsis of Operation Restore Hope in Somalia and Operation Uphold Democracy in Haiti. This section illustrates the planning considerations and execution challenges associated with MOOTW in these two environments. This provides the setting for campaign planning analysis.

Section V, Campaign Analysis, focuses on the validity of campaign planning in this environment using the fundamentals of campaign plans illustrated in Joint Pub 3-0 *Doctrine for Joint Operations*. This section identifies key distinctions between campaign planning for war and MOOTW and there applicability in future military operations.

Section VI, Conclusions, focuses on summarizing the positive and negative aspects of campaign planning in MOOTW. This section highlights the applicable portions of war fighting campaign doctrine when planning operations in an other than war environment.

Section II: Doctrinal Foundation

The purpose of this section is to highlight current joint and Army doctrine as it relates to campaign planning according to joint publications and service doctrine. Doctrinal concepts concerning operational art, campaign planing and MOOTW provide a foundation for understanding the complexity involved when executing campaigns in an other than war operation.

Operational Art

The concept of operational art first appeared in the 1920s in response to changing strategy, nature of operations, and military structure. This change resulted from a complex battlefield created by the products of the industrial revolution. Communications, weapons ranges, air power, mechanization, and transportation advances created battlefield dispersion and virtually eliminated the possibility of a single decisive battle.

Military commanders could no longer rely on the decisive Napoleonic battle to achieve political ends. Based on the complexity of battlefields during World War I, Soviet theorists discovered the need for an intermediate level of war to link tactical operations with political or strategic objectives. This concept evolved into the operational level of war and employment of operational art. Key to this process is the linkage of strategic goals with military objectives. Dr. Menning states in his article, *An Operator Planner's Introduction to Operational Art*, that, "operational art required the practitioner to identify strategic objectives within theater, to visualize a theater in three dimensions, and to determine what sequence of military actions (preparation, organization, support, battles, command arrangements, etc.) would bring the attainment of those objectives."[13] Operational art became the ability to link military objectives with strategic goals through the employment of armed forces.

Doctor James Schneider, professor of military theory at the School of Advanced Military Studies, defines operational art in his book *The Theory of Operational Art* as "the employment of military forces to attain strategic goals through the design,

organization and execution of campaigns and major operations."[14] He emphasizes that operational art resulted from the emergence of the empty battlefield and the rise of distributed free maneuver. These conditions resulted from dispersion created from the increase in weapon effectiveness, mobility and communications. Joint doctrine reflects these concepts in current doctrinal publications.

Joint Publication 3-0 *Doctrine for Joint Operations* and FM 100-7 *Decisive Force: The Army in Theater Operations* define operational art as:

> The employment of military forces to attain strategic and/or operational objectives through the design, organization, integration, and conduct of strategies, campaigns, major operations and battles. Operational art translates the joint force commander's strategy into operational design, and, ultimately, tactical action, by integrating the key activities of all levels of war.[15]

Joint doctrine emphasizes the importance of joint force commanders employing operational art in concert with strategic guidance in order to develop campaigns and major operations.

Joint Pub 3-0 further identifies fourteen fundamentals of operational art which serve as a guide when planning and employing military forces at this level of war. These fundamentals include synergy, simultaneity and depth, anticipation, balance, leverage, timing and tempo, operational reach and approach, forces and functions, arranging operations, centers of gravity, direct verses indirect, decisive points, culmination, and termination.[16] These fundamentals (defined in appendix 1) assist planners and commanders in the planning and execution of campaigns and major operations.

Campaigns

Field Manuals 100-5 *Operations* and 100-7 *Decisive Force: The Army in Theater Operations* define campaigns as a series of related military operations designed to achieve one or more strategic objectives within a given time and space. Campaigns represent the art of linking battles and engagements in an operational design to accomplish strategic objectives. They are inherently joint and serve a unifying focus for the conduct of warfare. Campaigns represent a unifying concept which synchronizes operations of land, air, maritime, special operations, and space forces. Campaigns may also include special coordination between interagency, combined, or United Nations forces.[17]

Joint Pub 5-00.1 *Doctrine for Joint Campaign Planning* identifies significant characteristics of campaigns. First, operations are conducted in a strategic environment or setting which includes aspects of the elements of national power: diplomatic, economic, military, and informational. Military forces always execute campaigns in concert with the other instruments of power. Second, joint campaigns support national strategic goals by achieving military objectives. Third, logistics considerations play a significant role and set the campaign's operational limits. The commander prioritizes resources in order to weight main efforts during execution. Fourth, campaigns focus on the enemy's strategic and operational centers of gravity. This includes prioritization of theater-level intelligence collection assets. Fifth, the campaign plan encompasses the commander's concept which clearly articulates a desired military and non-military end state. This concept includes the plan for sequencing and synchronizing forces to achieve

8

this end state. These characteristics emphasize the importance of linking military objectives to strategic aims and unifying the efforts of committed forces.[18]

There are two types of Campaign Plans: theater and subordinate. Theater campaigns, conducted by joint forces, synthesize deployment, employment, sustainment, and subordinate operations into a coherent whole. These operations may follow more than one line of operation. Subordinate joint force commanders may develop campaign plans that accomplish or contribute to the accomplishment of theater strategic objectives. Subordinate unified commands typically prepare campaign plans to accomplish assigned missions identified in the higher headquarters plan. Joint Task Forces (JTF) can also develop and execute campaign plans if the mission requires military operations of substantial size, complexity, and duration and cannot be accomplished in a single major joint operation.[19]

Campaign Planning

The theater campaign plan includes the commander's vision of the sequence of operations necessary to attain strategic objectives. The plan orients on the potential threats center of gravity and unifies the effort of land, sea, air, special operations, and space assets. According to Joint Publication 5-00.1, *Doctrine for Joint Campaign Planning*, the two most important parts of the plan are synchronization of these forces and the concept of sustainment.[20] Operationally, campaign plans must effectively sequence forces with sufficient supplies in order to accomplish strategic aims in a given time window. Force composition and operational environment influence these decisions.

The strategic operating environment influences campaign planning and design. Coalition and alliance formations, forward deployed forces, prepositioned equipment, political restrictions, use of adjacent air space and staging bases all impact on the design of campaigns. These factors influence lines of communication and ultimately determine sequencing of operations. MOOTW often contains unique political restrictions and rules of engagement. This environment influences the application of campaign fundamentals.[21]

Joint doctrine identifies 12 fundamentals of campaign plans which guide development and execution. Theater campaign plans are time sensitive, iterative, and adaptive based on the mission and forces available. These fundamentals include:

- Provide broad strategic concepts of operations and sustainment for achieving multinational, national, and theater strategic objectives.
- Provide an orderly schedule of decisions.
- Achieve unity of effort with air, land, sea, space, and special operations forces, in conjunction with interagency, multinational, nongovernmental, private voluntary, or United Nations forces, as required.
- Incorporate the combatant commander's strategic intent and operational focus.
- Identify any special forces or capabilities the enemy has in the area
- Identify the enemy strategic and operational centers of gravity and provide guidance for defeating them.
- Identify the friendly strategic and operational centers of gravity and provide guidance to subordinates for protecting them.
- Sequence a series of related major joint operations conducted in depth.
- Establish the organization of subordinate forces and designate command relationships.
- Serve as the basis for subordinate planning and clearly define what constitutes success, including conflict termination objectives and potential post hostilities activities.
- Provide strategic direction; operational focus; and major tasks, objectives, and concepts to subordinates.

- Provide direction for the employment of nuclear weapons as required and authorized by the national command authorities.[22]

These fundamentals guide operational commanders and planners in the development of campaign plans and application of operational art. Inherent in these fundamentals are the key concepts of operational art and design, and the key elements of operational design.

The key concepts of operational design provide a valuable framework for campaign plan development and assist in understanding the fundamentals of campaign planning. They include center of gravity, decisive points, lines of operation, culminating point, indirect approach, positional advantage and strategic concentration of forces, and deception.

Center of Gravity. Operationally, friendly forces must be able to focus resources against the enemy's main sources of strength. Concurrent with this concept, friendly forces must understand their own strength and develop ways to protect it. Carl von Clausewitz, the great Prussian military theorist, defined center of gravity as "the hub of all power and movement on which everything depends... the point at which all energies should be directed."[23] FM 100-5 *Operations*, defines center of gravity as "the hub of all power and movement upon which everything depends; that characteristic, capability, or location from which enemy and friendly forces derive their freedom of action, physical strength, or will to fight."[24] This concept is not limited to physical objects such as army units. It may include alliances or national will.

Decisive Points. Decisive points are the keys to defeating or protecting centers of gravity. The joint commander designates the most critical points and objectives in order

to gain freedom of maneuver and maintain momentum. An area of operation often contains more decisive points than an attacking force can service. This concept allows commanders to prioritize and focus simultaneous joint attacks in order to indirectly defeat centers of gravity.[25]

Lines of Operation. Lines of operation are the directional orientation of a force in relation to the enemy. These lines connect the force with its base of operations from which it receives supplies and reinforcements. This concept includes the interior or exterior directional orientation of a force to the enemy. This concept focuses combat power effects toward a desired end state.[26]

Culminating Point. In the offense, culmination is the point in time and space at which the offensive becomes overextended and offensive power no longer sufficiently exceeds that of the defender in order to continue the attack. In the defense, culmination is that point at which the defenders ability to defend reduces to such a degree that continuation would result in detailed defeat. If the defender's intent is to transition to the attack, then culmination occurs when the defender must revert to a holding action and wait reinforcements. If a defender's aim is to hold terrain, then culmination is when the defender must withdraw.[27]

Indirect Approach. Indirect approach is a scheme that attacks the enemy center of gravity from unexpected directions and times. This technique attempts to avoid enemy strengths and exploit vulnerabilities. Vulnerability examples include boundaries or seams between forces, the relative weaknesses of unprotected flanks or rear areas, and command and control facilities.[28]

Positional Advantage and Strategic Concentration of Forces. Joint forces seek to achieve positional advantage relative to enemy forces. This includes the ability to control air, land, sea, and space dimensions. Based on the vastness of the theater, joint force commanders must determine where to strategically concentrate force and in which areas to assume risk. This process stems from center of gravity and decisive point analysis.[29]

Deception. Deception is those measures designed to mislead enemy decision makers by manipulating, distorting, or falsifying evidence to induce the enemy to react in a manner against his interests. Deception relies on intelligence in order to help commanders identify appropriate targets, develop a credible story, and determine the effectiveness of the effort.[30]

The concepts of operational art and design assist campaign planners in determining the best courses of action to recommend to the commander. This process, if applied correctly, allows the joint commander to optimize military power against enemy vulnerabilities. The elements of theater and operational design reinforce this concept and contribute to the understanding campaign fundamentals. These elements include: objective, sequence of operations and use of resources, phases, branches and sequels, sequential and simultaneous warfare, and logistics.

Objective. The objective is the physical object which military forces must seize or control in order to achieve strategic aims. This element allows the commander to link military operations with strategic aims. The CINC initially focuses on national or

alliance strategic objectives and supplements these with theater strategic and operational objectives.[31]

Sequence of Operations and Use of Resources. The operational level commander links theater strategy and campaigns to tactical execution by sequencing major operations and battles over time. The plan must focus sequencing and use of resources on a desired end state and encompass the concepts of operational design. These considerations help determine phases, resources for these phases, and enable the joint force commander to determine requirements for branches and sequels.[32]

Phases. The plan divides the campaign into phases that focus on major changes in the total effort of the joint force, such as defensive to offensive, decisive maritime action, and decisive ground action. During these phases the main effort focuses on attacking the enemy centers of gravity simultaneously throughout the depth of the battle space. Each phase should lay the groundwork for its successor until a final decisive effort occurs. Phases may focus on a physical object or establishing a certain condition. Each phase should identify the strategic tasks and purpose for these actions, describe the commander's strategic concept, estimate of force requirements, and any major supporting operations.[33]

Branches and Sequels. Branches are contingency plans for changing disposition, orientation, or direction of movement and for accepting or declining battle. The joint commander visualizes the requirements over the full range of operations to preserve freedom of action. Sequels are actions taken after an event or battle based on possible

outcomes such as victory, defeat, or stalemate. These plans represent a continuous

thought process which occurs prior to and during operations.[34]

Sequential and Simultaneous Warfare. Deployment, employment, and

sustainment factors influence sequential and simultaneous warfare. The campaign plan

must address the problem of deployment to ensure that forces and supplies arrive at times

and places that support the campaign. Strategically, sequential actions include

mobilization, deployment, and sustainment of sequential employment of forces.

Operationally, sequencing focuses on force employment. This includes establishing

requirements for national resources from sustaining bases in the United States, forward

base and LOC establishment, intermediate base establishment to support new phases, and

priority of support for each phase. Logistics drives sequential and simultaneous warfare.

During campaign execution, phases may occur simultaneously. For example,

deployment may continue while forces conduct combat operations.[35]

Logistics. Logistics helps the joint force build, sustain, and project combat

power. Combat operations and logistics increasingly merge at the operational and

strategic levels of war. Strategic and operational logistics support wars and campaigns;

tactical logistics supports battles and engagements. The commander's theater strategic

design, in the campaign plan, incorporate integration of forces and logistics.[36]

In summation, campaign plans give the joint commander a means of articulating

the employment of operational art. Campaign plans are broad in scope, inherently joint,

and link a series of operations designed to achieve strategic objectives. The

fundamentals highlighted in joint doctrine provide commanders and planners with a

framework in which to prepare effective campaign plans. Inherent in these fundamentals

are the concepts and elements of operational design. A clear understanding of these

concepts provide a foundation for the monograph analysis.

Military Operations Other Than War (MOOTW)

Military Operations Other Than War encompasses the use of military capabilities

across the range of military operations short of war. This includes deterring war,

resolving conflict, promoting peace and supporting civil authorities in response to

domestic crises.[37] These actions compliment the other elements of national power in

order to achieve strategic aims. Political consideration often play a major role in all

levels of potential war. MOOTW operations vary significantly in scope.

These operations include arms control; combating terrorism; Department of

Defense support to counterdrug operations; enforcement of sanctions/maritime intercept

operations; enforcing exclusion zones; ensuring freedom of navigation and overflight;

humanitarian assistance; military support to civil authorities; nation assistance/support

to counterinsurgency; noncombatant evacuation operations; peace operations;

protection of shipping; recovery operations; show of force operations; strikes and raids;

and support to insurgency.[38] Tasks associated with these operation differ from

conventional war.

The MOOTW planning process is similar to conventional war planning as far as

steps and development of orders. The difference lies in the emphasis on specificity,

dealing with unique threats, and emphasizing force protection. The focus tends to be on

specific actions and objectives vice broad concepts due to political and legal

16

considerations. The threat also provides unique challenges. Generally, MOOTW threats differ from traditional adversaries in size, organization, tactics, and training. These unconventional force structures and tactics place a premium on intelligence collection. Somali war clans with pickup trucks and crew served machine guns illustrate this point. They use unorthodox tactics and blend with the population. Understanding these differences impacts on the most important command decision: the employment of sufficient forces for security.

Joint Pub 3-07 *Military Operations Other Than War* identifies specific planning considerations when preparing for operations other than war (Appendix II). These considerations emphasize the difference between MOOTW and conventional war. Operations tend to be singularly focused, constrained by political and legal requirements, and involve numerous civilian agencies outside the armed forces chain of command. This environment creates planning challenges uniquely different than those faced with synchronizing Operation Overlord.

Joint and service doctrine emphasize campaign planning as a process for applying operational art to conventional warfare. Joint Pub 3-0 identifies the fundamentals of campaign planning which reflect the concepts and elements of operational design. These tools provide planners and commanders with the doctrinal framework to plan future conventional and MOOTW operations. Doctrine places new emphasis on MOOTW. This environment provides unique challenges for military forces short of war. Joint Pub 3-07 highlights these operations and the associated planning considerations. These

doctrinal concepts set the foundation for analyzing whether campaign planning doctrine is adequate across the entire range of conflict.

Section III: Threat and Environment Model

Military operations other than war encompass military capabilities across the spectrum of conflict short of war. Potential threat and environment are unique features associated with MOOTW. The purpose of this section is to highlight the potential threat and environment which military forces may encounter in operations short of war.

Robert Kaplan developed a paradigm in his book, *The Ends of the Earth*, that ethnic clashes, environmental destruction, overpopulation, and disparity in wealth contribute to the deterioration of the nation state.[39] This unstable environment has the potential to produce unconventional threats to American interests and world order. The linear dispersed battlefield of past conventional wars now take the shape of unconventional faction and clan violence often influenced by corrupt governments. These factors influence the position the United States must take as the remaining super power when dealing with MOOTW. The ability to manipulate the situation early may prevent conflict escalation to conventional or unconventional war.

The *National Security Strategy* (NSS) emphasizes the factors which pose potential threats to national interests. Diverse threats shape policy and the commitment of military forces. The strategy states:

> Ethic conflict is spreading and rogue states pose a serious danger to regional stability in many corners of the globe. The proliferation of weapons of mass destruction represents a major challenge to our security. Large-scale environment degradation, exacerbated by rapid population growth, threatens to undermine political stability in many countries and regions. And the threat to our open and free society from the organized

18

forces of terrorism, international crime and drug trafficking is greater as the technological evolution which holds such promise, also empowers these destructive forces with novel means to challenge our security.[40]

This diverse and potentially volatile range of threats poses unique challenges for the military now and into the future.

According to the National Military Strategy (NMS), the international environment contains widespread and uncertain threats, where conflict is probable, but often unpredictable. The NMS characterizes the strategic landscape with four potential dangers which influence military operations: regional instability; the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction; transnational dangers; and dangers to democracy and reform. Regional instability includes nations that explode into internal conflict due to ethnic, religious or territorial quarrels. Yugoslavia, Bosnia and Rwanda provide examples of this potential threat. Proliferation of weapons of mass destruction encompasses the potential of nuclear, chemical, or biological weapons falling into the hands of terrorist or other hostile organizations and increasing regional insecurities. Transnational dangers occur due to global interdependence. Spreading diseases, fleeing refugees, international crime syndicates, and drug lords influence the United States and other national borders.[41] These principle dangers pose special concerns for military leaders when dealing with operations in the international environment.

The Foreign Military Studies Office conducted a study of the new regional and global threat environment according to inputs from the various CINC geographic areas of responsibility. The publication entitled, *The CINCs' Strategies: Planning for a New*

Threat Environment, outlines the current threat environment facing military commanders at the strategic and operational level. The book states:

> There is increasingly a range of key security challenges that blur the distinction among military, law enforcement, and other civil agency responsibilities. In this regard, insurgencies and separatist movements supported by drug trafficking and other criminality; heavily armed criminal gangs and paramilitaries asserting control over substantial areas or enterprises; illegal immigration and threats to the integrity of international borders; arms trafficking and illegal trade in strategic materials; industrial and natural disasters, environmental damage, famine, and public health threats, all may typically involve military, law enforcement, civil defense, medical, humanitarian assistance, and other government and non-government participants.[42]

These factors, which impact heavily on MOOTW, coupled with guidance from senior echelons help drive the development of strategy for the various CINCs' Geographic Areas of Responsibility.

Sub-Saharan Africa, located in the USCENTCOM area of responsibility, provides an excellent example of an environment full of security challenges of this nature. The former Secretary of Defense William Perry stated, "While we have no direct vital security interests in the region, the administration is committed to help empower African states and organizations to resolve conflicts and achieve democratization and economic growth essential to long term stability."[43]

The history of colonialism, in which the national boundaries of many African states failed to consider the balanced distribution of natural and economic resources; tribal, ethnic, and religious cohesion or animosities, continues to drive the conflicts and disasters which have plagued Africa over the past several decades. This environment poses significant security issues for United States planners. They include:

- continued potential for tribal, clan, and ethno-national violence involving a number of Sub-Saharan African states of the type experienced in Somalia, Rwanda, and Liberia
- violence, discord, and general ungovernability fostered by dysfunctional civil-military relations and military and security forces combining brutality, indiscipline, and professional incompetence
- floods, droughts, famine and other natural and man made disasters precipitating mass migration[44]

Africa represents one of many regions which possess the potential for operations short of war. Military leaders and planners must understand the nature of these environment and the impact on future deployments of the military instrument of power.

The United States Army is in the process of developing systems to train for future stability environments. Based on the broad spectrum of threats, the Army has not developed a standard MOOTW model like the conventional warfare model used by BCTP. However, BCTP modified the CBS system to train AFSOUTH, ARRC, and First Armored Division in preparation for deployment to Bosnia. This simulation produced specific scenarios which trained the headquarters on adapting to the unique environment of MOOTW. This included implementation and monitoring a zone of separation and negotiations with the former warring factions. The Army is currently working on a MOOTW model and simulation to focus specifically on these environments.

Section IV: Historical Background

The purpose of this section is to outline the historical background and define the environment which influenced MOOTW in Somalia and Haiti. This will form the background for analyzing the fundamentals of campaign planning in these respective operations.

Somalia.

The United States Armed Forces deployed to Somalia, in response to a presidential directive to provide security and humanitarian assistance to the people of Somalia. These forces helped form a Coalition organization which deployed into this austere theater and created a secure environment which helped save thousands of lives from starvation. This section illustrates the United States involvement in planning and execution of operations in Somalia.

The political situation in Somalia created an unstable environment. Since 1988, the country had experienced civil war creating an unstable environment between the numerous clans and factions. Clan members were extremely loyal and form temporary alliances to facilitate self interests. Typical clan members are aggressive, willing to accept casualties, and treat women and children as a part of the order of battle. Compounding the problem, Somalia was a cold war focal point for years. The government accumulated a large quantity of individual and crew served weapons. During the civil war, these weapons found there way into the hands of the various clan armies. In 1991, the Siad Barre regime collapsed and the political situation further deteriorated. Clan warfare, banditry, and the drought magnified the already existing famine which resulted in over 500,000 deaths.[45] These events, reported through the media, painted a captivating picture throughout the international community.

The United States involvement passed through three stages: Operation Provide Relief, a humanitarian assistance mission; Operation Restore Hope, humanitarian assistance and limited military action; and UNOSOM II, a peace enforcement mission

involving active combat. Throughout these operations two basic problems persisted: moving sufficient food, water and medical supplies into the country, and providing security to protect relief supplies from theft by bandits or confiscation by the clans and warring factions.[46]

"In April 1992, the UN Security Council approved Resolution 751, establishing the United Nations Operations in Somalia (UNOSOM) whose mission was to provide humanitarian aide and facilitate the end of hostilities in Somalia."[47] The fifty UNOSOM observers failed to make a difference in ending hostilities or securing relief supplies. In July, the United Nations requested additional assistance. The Bush Administration responded by ordering U.S. forces to support Operation Provide Relief from 15 August 1992 through December 1992.[48]

United States Central Command (CENTCOM) received the mission which was to provide military assistance in support of emergency humanitarian relief to Kenya and Somalia. The main objectives included:

- Deploy a Humanitarian Assistance Survey Team (HAST) to assess relief requirements in Somalia
- Activate a Joint Task Force to conduct an emergency airlift of food and supplies into Somalia
- Deploy (4) C-141 aircraft and (8) C-130 aircraft to Mombasa and Wajir, Kenya to provide daily relief sorties into Somalia[49]

During this 6 month operation, a daily average of 20 sorties delivered approximately 150 metric tons of supplies which totaled more than 28,000 metric tons of critical supplies by mission's end.[50]

Despite the success of these relief efforts, the security situation continued to deteriorate. In November, a ship carrying badly needed relief supplies received fire from belligerents in Mogadishu harbor, forcing its withdrawal. These actions and the overall security situation concerned the international community, to include the United States. On 4 December 1992, President Bush initiated Operation Restore Hope. Under the terms of UN Resolution 794, the United States would lead and provide military forces to a multinational coalition known as the United Task Force (UNITAF). This force would stabilize the situation then pass it off to a UN peacekeeping force. The UN mandate established two important missions: to provide humanitarian assistance to the Somali people, and to restore order in southern Somalia.[51] The mandate specifically referenced Chapter VII (Peace Enforcement) of the UN Charter due to the possible requirement of force in establishing a secure environment for distribution of relief supplies.[52]

The CENTCOM mission statement specified these objectives and clearly spelled out the essential tasks for peace operations forces.

> When directed by the National Command Authority (NCA), USCINCENT will conduct joint/combined military operations in Somalia to secure the major air and sea ports, key installations and food distribution points, to provide open and free passage of relief supplies, provide security for convoys and relief organization operations, and assist UN/NGOs in providing humanitarian relief under UN auspices. Upon establishing a secure environment for uninterrupted relief operations, USCINCCENT terminates and transfers relief operations to UN peacekeeping forces.[53]

UNITAF conducted these operations from 9 December 1992 to 4 May 1993 and involved more than 38,000 troops from 21 coalition nations, including 28,000 Americans.[54] The operation was successful in stabilizing the security situation, and confiscating crew

served weapons and other vehicles. The secure environment allowed safe passage of relief supplies to a large portion of the starving population.

As stated above, Operation Restore Hope's end state was to establish "a secure environment for uninterrupted relief operations" and then to transition the maintenance of the environment to a UN peacekeeping force. The initial three phases of the operation, which included deployment of forces and the establishment of local and expanded security seemed to go well. However, United Task Force (UNITAF) soon discovered that the term "secure environment" did not have a universal agreed upon mark on the wall.

UN Secretary General Boutros-Ghali urged the operation to continue until US forces could effectively disarm the bandits and clan factions that continued operations in Somalia. These issues initially deferred the transition but on 26 March 1993, the UN published Security Council Resolution 814 which established UNOSOM II.[55] The transition began on 18 February 93 and ended on 4 May 1993.[56] This resolution produced several significant directives which impacted on the organization's ability to conduct peace operations:

- The council mandated the first ever UN directed peacekeeping operation under Chapter VII enforcement provisions of the Charter, including the requirement for UNOSOM II to disarm Somali clans
- The council explicitly endorsed the objective of rehabilitating the political situation and economy of a member state
- The council called for building a secure environment throughout the country, including the northern region that had declared its independence.[57]

These objectives expanded the fairly limited mandate of UNITAF and UNOSOM I. A full UN peacekeeping structure controlled the operation. Retired US Navy Admiral Jonathan Howe, Special Representative of the Secretary General, and Turkish Lieutenant General Cevik Bir, UN multinational force commander, headed up the organization.[58]

The US primarily provided logistics support for the operation with over 3,000 personnel and a Quick Reaction Force consisting of 1,150 soldiers from the 10th Mountain Division. The QRF operated under the control of the Commander, US Forces , Somalia, and supported UNOSOM II from 4 MAY 1993 to 31 March 1994. Their mission was "When directed, UNOSOM II Force Command conducts military operations to consolidate, expand, and maintain a secure environment for the advancement of humanitarian aid, economic assistance, and political reconciliation in Somalia."[59]

The aggressive UN mandate and the continued presence of multinational forces ultimately threatened the power base of Mohammed Aideed, a powerful Mogadishu clan warlord. These tensions exploded when Aideed supporters ambushed the Pakistani relief convoy on 5 June 1993, resulting in twenty-four Pakistani soldiers killed and more than fifty wounded. The convoy was delivering relief supplies and unloading food, at a feeding station at the time of the attack.[60] This ambush changed the nature of UNOSOM II operations.

The UN published Security Council Resolution 837 which called for the immediate apprehension of those responsible. This resolution resulted in US forces employed on a manhunt for Aideed. After a series of engagements involving US Rangers and other units, a major fight broke out on 3 October 1993, resulting in eighteen

Americans killed and seventy-five wounded. The bloodiest battle of any UN

peacekeeping operation. Shortly after this incident, President Clinton ordered the

withdrawal of US forces, to conclude around 31 March 1994.[61]

Haiti

Operation Uphold Democracy was a US led, multinational effort to support the

return of President Jean Bertrand Aristide and his legitimate government to power in

Haiti. The purpose of this section is to highlight the United States involvement in

planning and executing this operation.

Haiti is the second oldest democracy in the Western Hemisphere, but its political

history includes more oppression and political instability than freedom. Coups and

overthrown dictators, by assassination or exile, are common place in it's political history.

During its 190 year existence, only five Haitian heads of state lived to finish their terms,

three of those during United States occupation.[62]

The election of President Jean Bertrand Aristide in December 1990 was no

exception to the unstable political environment of the past. In an election monitored by

former President Carter, Aristide became the first elected head of state in Haitian history.

Seven months after the election, Aristide was overthrown in a coup led by the

commander of the Forces Armees d'Haiti (Fad'H), Lieutenant General Cedras.[63] These

events captured the attention of the United Nations and United States.

Shortly after the coup, United Nations (UN) observers arrived in Haiti to monitor

human rights violations as part of a group called the International Civilian Mission. This

group expanded to include a group of International Police Monitors and a US led foreign

internal defense mission named the Haitian Assistance and Advisory Group (HAAG).

Additionally, the UN initiated an international embargo against Haiti in June 1993, and

the UN Security Council approved resolution 867 which authorized deploying

peacekeepers on an expanded mission to support the transition from Lieutenant General

Cedras to the legitimate government. On 14 October the main body of the HAAG arrived

in Port-au-Prince harbor and discovered that Lieutenant General Cedras had no desire to

negotiate the return of Aristide. An angry crowd greeted the ship in port, denying

permissive entry. This hostile action sparked United States involvement.[64]

On 1 April 1993, General Colin Powell, Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff

(CJCS), alerted CINCUSACOM of possible operations in Haiti. In October 1993,

CINCUSACOM established Joint Task Force (JTF)-120 in support of the international

embargo. The JTF conducted Maritime Interdiction Operations (MIO) to increase

pressure on the illegal Haitian government. The repressive Cedras regime and

international pressure created a mass exodus of Haitians to neighboring countries. In

May 1994, CINCUSACOM established JTF-160 to conduct Haitian migration

interdiction and processing. This operation took place at sea and at designated migrant

camp sites on shore, the largest of these camps being Guantanamo Bay, Cuba.[65]

Based on the need for a possible forced entry option to return democracy to Haiti,

the XVIII Airborne Corps (designated JTF-180), developed OPLAN 2370-95. This plan

covered forced entry operations to over through the illegal government. The JTF briefed

the final plan to CINCUSACOM on 20 June 1994. Concurrent with this process,

USACOM developed a permissive entry plan (OPLAN 2380-95). On 3 July 1994,

CINCUSACOM activated JTF-190 for planning the permissive option. This JTF

centered around the 10th Mountain Division (LI) out of Fort Drum, New York. This plan

differed from OPLAN 2370-95 based on stricter rules of engagement and lower security

classification which made the plan open and accessible to interagencies for planning. On

8 July 1994 JTF-190 completed the initial plan.[66]

Joint Task Force 190 conducted a revision to OPLAN 2380-95 based on a

significant change in UN policy. The UN Security Council passed Resolution 940 on 31

July 1994. This resolution authorized a two phased operation. Phase I was a US led

multinational force under Chapter VII of the UN charter which called for the use of all

necessary force to accomplish objectives. Phase II was the UN mission in Haiti under

Chapter VI of the charter.[67] This portion was more conservative in the use of force.

In September 1994, Operation Uphold Democracy began with the use of forcible

deterrent options to force Lieutenant General Cedras and other illegal government

personnel to depart peacefully or face military eviction. This included posturing JTF-

180, under UNSCR 940, for employment.[68] Concurrent with these actions, a diplomatic

team which included former President Jimmy Carter, former CJCS General Colin

Powell, and Senator Sam Nunn (D-GA) Chairman of the Senate Armed Services

Committee, negotiated and obtained an agreement from Lieutenant General Cedras and

other key Haitian leaders to cooperate with the restoration of President Aristide.[69]

Based on the results of the diplomatic negotiation, CJTF-180 arrived in Haiti on

19 September 1994. Their mission was:

> To protect U.S. citizens and interests, designated Haitian and third country
> nationals; to create a secure environment for the restoration of the

legitimate government of Haiti; to conduct operations as required to preserve civil order in Port-au-Prince and elsewhere as required by emerging events; to provide technical military assistance to the government of Haiti (GOH); and on order, pass responsibility for military operations to United Nations Mission in Haiti (UNMIH).[70]

The CJTF-180 executed this mission for 36 days before passing control of the Joint Operations Area (JOA) over to CJTF-190 comprised of the 10th Mountain Division (LI).

During this operation, CJTF-180 stabilized the situation for reestablishment of the legitimate government, conducted psychological operations, stabilized the Camp d'Application complex (largest military threat), executed a "guns for cash" policy to confiscate weapons, conducted security patrols, assisted in the organization of Haitian police, and assisted in the repatriation of refugees.[71] These operations set the conditions for the reinstatement of President Aristide.

Overall, the mission in Haiti was an unqualified success. During the period ranging from September 1994 to March 1995, a force consisting of 20,000 American service members from the Army, Navy, Air Force, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard, in conjunction with approximately 5,000 non-U.S. forces from 24 nations conducted successful operations to restore the legitimate government in Haiti.[72] This peace operation illustrated the employment of a multinational military force an unstable Post-Cold War environment.

Section V: Campaign Analysis

The key distinction between war and military operations other than war is the employment of military forces. The general goal for war is to fight and win a decision while the goal of MOOTW is to deter war, resolve conflict, and promote peace. Based

on the ends, ways and means model, the main difference concerns the employment (ways) of military force.

The MOOTW principles restraint, perseverance, and legitimacy highlight the differences when planning for MOOTW and assist in analyzing the fundamentals of campaign planning. Restraint is the prudent application of appropriate military capability. This refers to the judicious application of military force in contrast to overwhelming combat power in war. Perseverance is the preparation for a measured and protracted application of military capability in support of strategic aims. Military operations other than war may require the extended employment of military forces to achieve desired ends. Legitimacy is the sustainment of the willing acceptance by the people of the right of the government to govern or agency to make and carry out decisions. Military forces must sustain the legitimacy of the host government.[73] These principles highlight the uniqueness of military operations where force is often the last resort.

The purpose of this section is to analyze military operations in Somalia and Haiti to determine the adequacy of campaign planning doctrine in MOOTW. This monograph will analyze the fundamentals of campaign planning according to joint doctrine. For simplicity, the twelve principles are categorized into the following groups: strategic aims and military objectives; operational intelligence; centers of gravity analysis; commander's guidance and intent; operational concept and phasing; and command and control.

Strategic Aims and Military Objectives

Clearly, one of the most distinguishable characteristics of a campaign plan is the linkage of a series of operations aimed at achieving strategic objectives. These political aims typically come from policy after failed attempts to resolve conflict using the other elements of national power (diplomatic, informational and economic). Deployment of military force becomes the way and means to accomplish strategic ends. A major contributor to this equation is the role of the UN and international support. Mandates and terms of reference (TOR) establish the framework for force employment. Inherent in these resolutions is the authorization of force. Rules of engagement tend to be more restrictive in MOOTW than conventional war.

Military operations other than war typically contain a far more prevalent political element than conventional operations. This leads to a greater restraint placed on the operational commander in relation to the use of force and risk. Additionally, MOOTW often entails more intangible objectives, an ill-defined and elusive opponent, longer duration, and vastly different operational environment that may range from urban to isolated jungle operations.[74] These characteristics dictate force organization and employment.

Prior to operations in Somalia, former President Bush established the United States strategic objectives stating, "we will create a secure environment in the hardest-hit parts of Somalia, so that food can move from ships overland to the people in the countryside."[75] He further stated that the limited mission was to open the supply routes, get the food moving, and prepare the way for a UN peacekeeping force to keep it

moving. He continued, "our mission is humanitarian, ... we do not plan to dictate outcomes." USCENTCOM planners took these strategic objectives and developed a plan which incorporated military operations, at the tactical level, to achieve military objectives associated with these strategic aims. This plan included deployment and secure lodgements, expand security operations out to relief sites, uncover and seize weapons caches, and transition to UN Control.[76]

Haiti's geographic proximity to the United States magnify the importance of political interests in the small country. There are approximately one million Haitians residing in the United States and 8,000 US citizens residing in Haiti. The location also facilitates refugee movements and drug trafficking to the coast of the United States. Strategic interests include support to democracy, refugee control, counter-drug trafficking, and humanitarian assistance.[77] Military planners identified the following tasks and objectives associated with these strategic aims when planning Operation Uphold Democracy: establish and maintain a secure and stable environment, facilitate departure of the illegitimate government, and facilitate the return of the legitimate government.[78] These objectives drove the design of OPLANs 2370-95 and 2380-95.

The process of linking military operations and objectives with strategic aims is a critical fundamental in the development of campaign plans in war and MOOTW. Planners must understand the difference in scope and adjust accordingly. During Operation Overlord, the strategic war aim given to the Supreme Allied Commander was "Enter the continent of Europe, and undertake operations aimed at the heart of Germany and the destruction of her armed forces."[79] This broad strategic guidance planted the

seed for an unprecedented campaign plan focusing a series of major operations to accomplish these strategic ends. As illustrated in Somalia and Haiti, campaigns of this magnitude rarely exist in MOOTW, but this fundamental of campaign planning still applies.

Operational Intelligence

During campaign development, intelligence planners identify the composition, location, disposition, movements and strengths of major enemy forces. This provides the commander with a situational awareness necessary to develop effective plans and orders which maximize force protection. Potential threats and collection efforts differ significantly between war and MOOTW.

In conventional operations the most useful intelligence comes from technical means. Large scale movements and enemy defensive preparations are discernible using technical means. In MOOTW, the threat rarely enjoys a large armed force, therefore, technical intelligence sources are of minimal value. The commander must rely to a larger degree on human sources. For example, it is almost impossible to track an insurgent with a satellite, but a well placed human source may provide critical information on a timely bases.[80] This does not eliminate the need to exploit strategic intelligence sources during MOOTW. Based on the pace and scope of operations, tactical units may be able to capitalize on strategic sources. The challenge remains the ability to translate these products to the tactical element in a timely manner. Based on austere threats, a combination of human and electronic intelligence collection means enhance campaigns in operations short of war.

The threat situation in Somalia consisted mainly of guerrilla style fighters armed with assault rifles, machine guns, RPG-7s, mines and demolitions. These fighters belong to more than 14 clans and factions within the Somalia society. The largest organized group being a clan of over 2,000 guerrilla fighters under the leadership of Mohammed Aideed.[81] Intelligence collection on this organization was extremely difficult due to its ability to blend with the local population.

In Haiti, the military organization led by Lieutenant General Cedras consisted of about 8,100 active duty personnel including 6,200 in the army, a small navy and air corps of around 300 people each, and 1,300 civil police in Port-au-Prince. The Haitian Army depended on foreign arms imports, resulting in an arsenal of old and ineffective equipment from many different countries to include five V-150 light armored vehicles, assorted small arms, and mortars. The air corps had two dozen fixed wing aircraft and about 8 helicopters.[82] This force possessed little threat to neighboring countries, but was sufficient for maintaining internal defense. Collection on this organization was fairly easy, the challenge was anticipating the likelihood of employment.

Campaign planning doctrine focuses on assessing conventional threats. Just as Operation Overlord focused on the destruction of German armed forces which was the most powerful military machine in the world at that time. The intelligence system associated with MOOTW must adjust its collection effort and focus in order to capture the critical information needed for commanders and planners to develop force structures and campaign plans necessary to provide situational awareness. The end result is maximum force protection.

Center of Gravity Analysis

Center of gravity is a valuable tool when determining the employment of the elements of national power (diplomatic, economic, military and informational). The Clausewitzian term defined as "the hub of all power and movement upon which everything depends; that characteristic, capability, or location from which enemy and friendly forces derive their freedom of action, physical strength, or the will to fight."[83] Center of gravity analysis focuses the efforts of planners when determining strategic and operational objectives in order to achieve a desired strategic aim.

Center of gravity analysis provides the basis for employment of the military instrument of power. Clausewitz states, "A center of gravity is always found where the mass [of a military force] is concentrated most densely. It represents the most effective target for a blow; furthermore, the heaviest blow is that struck by the center of gravity."[84] Clausewitz developed this concept based on experiences during Napoleonic warfare when two symmetrical forces fought head to head on the battlefield. Given this background, the center of gravity concept evolved into United States doctrine as a tool for developing plans for conventional war. The campaign planning process uses this analysis as a basis for developing operational and tactical objectives and focusing resources to accomplish these objectives nested with strategic goals. In conventional war tactical and operational centers of gravity are easier to identify than in MOOTW. They may include a main effort or reserve troop or armor concentration. In MOOTW this concept becomes more ambiguous.

During MOOTW planning, center of gravity identification becomes increasingly difficult. At the tactical level of war, the opposition rarely consolidates in a manner which allows massing forces against a definable concentration. More often these forces are widely dispersed, highly elusive and difficult to identify based on the ability to blend with the population. A dispersed guerrilla force has a center of gravity but this is difficult to identify and may change over time based on self organization. Military planners look beyond military targets and focus on social and political structures of potential threat when identifying MOOTW centers of gravity. Examples may include its will to fight, the personality of leaders, or perseverance of the populace.[85] After identification of centers of gravity planners must develop plans and allocate resources to attack them.

An important part of center of gravity analysis is the identification of decisive points. Decisive points are the keys to defeating or protecting centers of gravity. After identifying the hub of all power, planners must identify key points which the seizure or influence of provides the force a marked advantage over the center of gravity. This process influences the development and employment of resources when executing the plan.

During operations in Haiti planners identified the strategic center of gravity as the political-military leadership (decisive points: Cedras /Aristide transition) and the operational center of gravity as the military (FAD'H) and police force. Operational decisive points included key weapons secured and disarming/reorganizing the army and police.[86] This analysis focused operations in order to accomplish the strategic end state.

Conversely, planners identified friendly centers of gravity. At the strategic level, United States public support was the center of gravity. Strategic decisive points included force protection, positive media impact, progress/change, and UNMIH transition. Operational level center of gravity included US force presence. The associated decisive points included visibility, rapid expansion, and anarchy to order.[87] Center of gravity analysis provided valuable tool for MOOTW planning in Haiti, focusing force alignment with military objectives.

Center of gravity analysis also influenced planning during operations in Somalia. The Somali strategic center of gravity hinged on the existence of a secure environment for nation building and humanitarian assistance. Operational centers of gravity focused on belligerent clans and bandits, specifically the Mogadishu based clan warlord Mohammed Aideed.[88] Failure to understand this center of gravity in relation to force organization contributed to the incident on 3 October. Armor forces were not available to rescue the surrounded special operations detachment. A better understanding of the Aideed clan intentions and capabilities may have prevented or reduced the disaster.

In summary, centers of gravity analysis provides a strong basis for campaign planning. Although its development centered around two symmetrical forces fighting head to head on the battlefield, MOOTW plans benefit from the concept. As long as the differences are understood, the process provides an invaluable tool for focusing the analysis necessary to generate effective campaign plans.

Commander's Guidance and Intent

Commander's guidance and intent provide vision to subordinate forces executing

the campaign plan. The following fundamentals of campaign planning emphasize

guidance and intent:

- Incorporate the combatant commander's strategic intent and operational focus.
- Serve as the basis for subordinate planning and clearly define what constitutes success, including conflict termination objectives and potential post hostilities activities.

Based on broad concepts associated with campaigns, the commander's ability to express

a shared vision becomes critical during plan development and execution flexibility.

The concept of commander's intent is critical to planning in war and MOOTW.

Commander's intent and operational focus provides subordinate commands with the

essential purpose, method and end state for the operation. This process, at the

operational level, links strategic goals with operational and tactical objectives through

the eyes of the commander. It serves as the basis for subordinate planning. In MOOTW,

intents may be more specific on issues such as restraint and legitimacy rather than

destruction of enemy forces. No matter how different these elements are, a clear end

state is paramount for war and MOOTW.

End state, a critical part of intent, focuses the development and execution of

plans. FM 100-5 defines end state as "a set of required conditions which when achieved,

attain the aims set for the campaign or operation."[89] These required conditions focus the

development of campaign plans and execution. In Somalia, the end state was "to create

an environment in which the UN and NGOs can assume full responsibility for the

security and operations of the Somalia humanitarian relief efforts."[90] This end state was clear early on in the operation. Problems occurred when the method changed and exceeded the force capability on the ground.

Additionally, post conflict termination and exit strategy becomes an important part of MOOTW planning. Kevin Benson defined exit strategy in his article, *Declaring Victory: Planning Exit Strategies for Peace Operations*, as the planned transition to the host nation(s) of all functions performed on its (their) behalf by peace operations forces.[91] The intent for this portion of the operation was:

> The purpose of this mission is to maintain a secure and stable environment which allows the government of Haiti to maintain functional governance, gradually transferring responsibility for the secure and stable environment to the government of Haiti. The end state is defined as the secure and stable environment that allows social and economic development, free elections, and peaceful transition of responsibility to the government of Haiti.[92]

The accomplishment of these conditions included the need to phase out security patrols, field elements of the Haitian National Police, assist in the election/inauguration of the president, and transfer of the mission to follow on UN forces.[93] Successful accomplishment of these tasks determine legitimacy and mission accomplishment.

In summary, commanders strategic intent and operational focus apply equally in war and MOOTW. The difference lies in conditions and methods applied to the varying operational environments. Conventional war typically focuses on the destruction of a particular enemy force and MOOTW focuses on creating a stable environment through legitimacy and constraint. Termination and exit strategies also play an important role in achieving the commander's intent. This usually occurs during the final phase of an

operation and requires a smooth transition in order to maintain mission success.

Campaign doctrine emphasizes the importance of these concepts and they apply equally

throughout the range of conflict.

Operational Concept and Phasing

The operational concept and phasing integrate the fundamentals of campaign

planning into a coherent and orderly sequence of operations in order to maximize force

capabilities and accomplish military objectives. The following fundamentals specifically

impact on the operational concept and phasing:

- Provide strategic direction; operational focus; and major tasks, objectives, and concepts to subordinates.
- Sequence a series of related major joint operations conducted in depth.
- Achieve unity of effort with air, land, sea, space, and special operations forces in conjunction with interagency, multinational, nongovernmental, private voluntary, or United Nations as required.

These fundamentals are extremely important in planning both war and MOOTW. Again,

these concepts work across the range of conflict. The difference lies in the size and

scope of operations. Operation Overlord employed over 1,527,000 soldiers from four

countries. Operation Restore Hope included 38,000 soldiers from 21 nations.[94]

The campaign plan format in FM 100-7 *Decisive Force: The Army in Theater*

Operations, incorporates these fundamentals in paragraph 3, Joint Operations. The

operational concept (3.a.) integrates the fundamentals of campaign plans into a who,

what, where, and how statement of operational intent. This includes restating the

assigned operational concept for each phase of the theater strategic concept and the

phased sustainment of major forces in the command. This portion identifies operational

objectives and phases included within the overall campaign.[95] The concept for phasing

subordinate units (3.b.) identifies subordinate objectives, scheme of maneuver, timing

and specified tasks by phase.[96] This section includes the sequencing of forces into a

theater of operations based on the need for employment and support.

Sequencing depends on a myriad of factors to include military objectives,

availability of strategic lift, port and airfield capability in theater, force structure, and

international agreements. The plan must weigh these considerations against military

objectives when preparing the time phased force deployment document (TPFDD).

Operation Restore Hope planners had to deal with inadequate port facilities when

deploying forces into theater.

Phasing is an important tool when organizing a campaign plan. Operation

Restore Hope contained the following phases: Phase I: Secure lodgement and establish

ARFOR; Phase II: Expand security operations out to relief distribution sites; Phase III:

Expand security operations (uncover and seize weapon caches); and Phase IV:

Transition to United Nations.[97] These phases were based on sequencing sufficient forces

into country to accomplish military objectives while providing sufficient force protection.

Concurrent with sequencing and phasing, campaign planning must achieve unity

of effort. Unity of effort is the concept of directing everything for a common purpose.[98]

Haiti provides an excellent example of a peace operation which incorporated forces

throughout the joint spectrum. During Operation Uphold Democracy, USACOM

activated JTF-120 to conduct maritime interdiction operations, JTF-160 to conduct

Haitian migrant interdiction and processing, JTF-180 to conduct a forced entry option,

and JTF-190 to conduct a permissive entry option.[99] USACOM focused the efforts of these operations toward a common strategic goal of bringing stability to Haiti.

Another factor which influences unity of effort in MOOTW is the interaction with interagency, multinational, nongovernmental, and private voluntary organizations. Unity of effort is difficult with these organizations because they are not in the formal change of command. Commanders seek an atmosphere of cooperation when dealing with these groups. Formation of a civil-military operations center also helps decrease this burden.

Campaign planning doctrine provides a process to translate strategic goals to tactical objectives. Once planners identify the military objectives, the campaign plan focuses on identifying subordinate tasks to achieve these objectives. This process includes sequencing and phasing forces within a unified concept. This process applies across the broad spectrum of conflict, however, MOOTW operations occur on a smaller scale and may not incorporate as many major operations.

Command and Control

Campaign plans establish the organization of subordinate forces and designate command relationships. This process includes identifying forces with unique capabilities to accomplish the tasks associated with achieving military objectives. In MOOTW, force structures generally contain multinational forces. This organization places unique strains on command and control relationships. The types of command arrangements which the United States may participate in include unilateral US operations, multinational operation with the US as the lead nation, and multinational operations with the US in a

support role.[100] The effectiveness of campaign planning weighs heavy on the ability to incorporate the multinational forces, given cultural and language barriers.

The organization of Operation Restore Hope centered around a Marine Expeditionary Force headquarters. Ensuring continuity of relationships and procedures, this organization enhanced the CJTF capability to handle operational challenges. The US led organization was responsible for the coordination of a multinational coalition of twenty different countries, many chosen to demonstrate international support for the UN mandate rather than provide complimentary capabilities. Further complicating matters, the headquarters had to align these activities with forty-nine different UN humanitarian relief agencies, none of which fell subordinate to the military organization.[101]

Based on these challenges of the area of operation, the CJTF planning staff identified three key command and control techniques which proved effective during the operation. They included organization of military forces into brigade size elements, civil-military operations center employment, and division of the country into humanitarian relief sectors. Based on the size and organization of the CJTF, subordinate brigade level organizations proved to be an optimal span of control and facilitated mission-type orders. The civil-military operations center enhanced the CJTF capability to coordinate with the military support structure, non-government organizations, private volunteer organizations, and local authorities. The planning staff also organized the area of operation into nine humanitarian relief sectors to facilitate military and humanitarian assistance operations.[102] These techniques enhanced the joint and combined force capability to execute the campaign plan.

Command and control operations in Haiti proved easier based on the time available for deliberate planning, time for pre-execution staff rehearsals, and minimum military threat to deployed forces. The CJTF organization consisted of over 20,000 US military forces, 5,000 international forces from twenty-four nations, and numerous civilian relief organizations. This organization centered around the XVIII Airborne Corps staff which conducted operations from the USS MT Whitney. The CJTF was further subdivided into five subordinate joint and combined task forces for the operation. This included a joint and multinational ground task force, an Air Force combined task force, a psychological task force, a joint special operations task force, and a combined naval task force.[103] This structure provided an effective organization for LTG Shelton to command and control and illustrates the complexity involved in executing campaigns in MOOTW.

As illustrated by operations in Somalia and Haiti, the synergistic effect of joint force employment influences campaign design. The JTF concept and evolution of joint doctrine allow planners to effectively develop campaigns to employ joint forces throughout the depth of a theater of operation. Joint staffs allow the integration of expertise to maximize force potential.

Additionally, campaign plans provide the framework for commander to make orderly decisions. The linkage of military tasks and objectives within the framework of timed phases provide a tool for determining progress. The use of commanders critical information reporting (CCIR) also help focus decisions during execution. These tools

facilitate effective decisions, resulting in efficient force employment and flexibility of execution.

In summary, campaign planning doctrine provides the framework for command and control of multinational and joint forces consistent with national and international strategic objectives. Organization of the campaign plan aids the commander in efficient employment of these forces in conventional war and MOOTW.

Section VI: Conclusion

Campaign planning doctrine is adequate for military operations other than war. Joint and service doctrine address the key fundamentals of campaign planning and the unique planning characteristics of military operations short of war. Campaign planning doctrine traditionally focuses on conventional war. Key to applying this process to MOOTW is understanding the difference between the two environments. This monograph analyzed the fundamentals of campaign planning as it relates to the MOOTW environment and uncovered the importance of understanding the following major concepts when applying this planning process: strategic and military objective linkage, understanding the unique threat environment, and operational concepts.

Linking strategic aims with military objectives is one of the most important processes within campaign planning for MOOTW. The consolidation of strategic aims with international mandates and terms of reference set the purpose for the entire campaign plan. The plan must contain a course of action which encompasses the principles of restraint, perseverance, and legitimacy while achieving the desired strategic

end state. A clear understanding of these aims and objectives, early on in the planning process, ensures continuity throughout campaign plan development.

The MOOTW environment presents unique challenges for campaign planning. The contemporary threat employed on a dispersed battlefield such as past conventional wars may now take the shape of unconventional faction and clan violence often influenced by corrupt governments. The evolution of this environment presents a broad spectrum of threats for which the military planner must contend. Potential adversaries may have modern conventional weapons or more primitive weapons such as machine guns and RPGs. These threats present challenges to intelligence efforts and the development of campaign plans. A potential threat's beliefs and fundamental ideas may differ significantly from the United States. Mission accomplishment and force protection depend on the ability to understand these differences and their influence on the area of operation.

Centers of gravity analysis continues to be a valuable tool in this process. Identification of the source of power which drives potential threats help focus operational concepts toward a desired end state. This process works throughout the spectrum of potential threats and provides critical analysis which helps determine force organization requirements and the development of operational concepts.

The operational concept and phasing integrates the fundamentals of campaign planning into a coherent and orderly sequence of operations in order to maximize force capabilities, accomplish military objectives, and provide direction and focus for subordinate units. Commander's guidance and intent provides the focus for the concept

and keeps the plan oriented on a desired end state. Conflict termination and exit strategies play an important role in focusing this portion of the campaign plan toward a desired end. Planners must pull together tasks and objectives within the strategic context in order to ensure unity of effort. In MOOTW, this concept must incorporate the principles of legitimacy, perseverance, and restraint. Additionally, the uniqueness of operations other than war typically require a plan that encompasses extended timelines, includes civilian organizations and other agencies, and considers the employment of force as a last resort.

In conclusion, future conflicts will more than likely include military operations short of war such as Somalia and Haiti rather than conventional wars like Operation Overlord. Understanding the key differences between these two environments will allow military planners to apply joint and service campaign doctrine in order to address the threats of the 21st century.

Appendix I (Facets of Operational Art)[104]

Synergy - Integrate and synchronize operations in a manner that applies force from different dimensions to shock, disrupt, and defeat opponents.

Simultaneity and Depth - Bring force to bear on the opponent's entire structure in a near simultaneous manner to overwhelm and cripple enemy capabilities and the enemy's will to resist.

Anticipation - Remain alert for the unexpected and for opportunities to exploit the situation.

Balance - Refers to the appropriate mix of forces and capabilities within the joint force, as well as the nature and timing of operations conducted to disrupt an enemy's balance.

Leverage - Gain, maintain, and exploit advantages in combat power across all dimensions.

Timing and Tempo - Conduct operations at a tempo and point in time that best exploits friendly capabilities and inhibits the enemy.

Operational Reach and Approach - Basing, whether from overseas locations, sea-based platforms, or the continental United States, directly affects operational reach. In particular, advanced bases underwrite the progressive ability of the joint force to shield its components from enemy action and deliver symmetric and asymmetric blows with increasing power and ferocity.

Forces and Functions - Campaigns and operations can focus on defeating either enemy forces or functions, or a combination of both.

Arranging Operations - The best arrangement will often be a combination of simultaneous and sequential operations to achieve the desired end state conditions quickly and at the least cost in personnel and other resources.

Centers of Gravity - The essence of operational art lies in being able to mass effects against the enemy's sources of power in order to destroy or neutralize them.

Direct versus Indirect Approach - To the extent possible, JFCs attack enemy centers of gravity directly. Where direct attack means attacking into an opponent's strength, seek an indirect approach.

Decisive Points - (Usually geographic in nature) Correctly identifying and controlling decisive points can gain a marked advantage over the enemy and greatly influence the outcome of an action.

Culmination - Synchronization of logistics with combat operations can forestall culmination and help commanders control the tempo of their operations.

Termination - Before forces are committed, JFCs must know how the NCA intends to terminate the operation and ensure its outcomes endure.

Appendix II (Planning Considerations for Military Operations Other Than War)[105]

- Unit integrity allows for quick deployment and continued operations.

- Intelligence and information gathering needs to be multi-disciplined and utilize fused intelligence from all sources within the military including spaced-based intelligence, human intelligence, counterintelligence, and mapping, charting and geodesy.

- Multinational operations need special attention and require increased liaisons and advisors.

- Command and control are overseen by the joint force commanders (JFCs) and their subordinates and should remain flexible to meet specific requirements of each situation and promote unity of effort.

- Public affairs, including media reporting, influences public opinion and may ultimately be a principle factor in the success or failure of the operation.

- Civil affairs may provide assessments of the civil infrastructure, assist in the operation of temporary shelters, and serve as liaison between the military and various outside groups.

- Psychological operations provide a planned, systematic process of conveying messages to, and influencing selected target groups.

- Coordination with nongovernmental, private voluntary organizations and interagency operations allows the JFC to gain greater understanding of the situation and the society involved.

- Political and legal issues to include rules of engagement must be clearly understood.

- Medical operations support MOOTW to protect US personnel and enhance mission capability.

- MOOTW may require the mobilization of specialized reserve units.

- The termination of operations includes actions to be taken as soon as the operation is complete. Such actions encompass transitioning to civil authority, marking and clearing minefields, closing financial obligations, pre-redeployment activities, redeploying forces and numerous other actions depending on the specific operation.

Appendix III (Campaign Planning Comparison Matrix)

Campaign Plan Fundamentals	Conventional War	Military Operations Other Than War
Provide broad strategic concepts of operations and sustainment for achieving multinational, national, and theater strategic objectives.	Linked to the strategic aim. Broad concept of operation for defeating the conventional enemy force. Guidance for fighting and winning.	Linked to the strategic aim. More specific concept for deterrence, conflict resolution, and promotion of peace, (legitimacy and restraint)
Identify any special forces or capabilities the enemy has in the area.	Large well trained and equipped military force. (Symmetrical)	Smaller scale unconventional force with primitive weapons and guerrilla tactics
Identify the enemy strategic and operational centers of gravity and provide guidance for defeating them.	Large identifiable force such as an armor unit, C2 facility, or aircraft.	Belligerent force and legitimacy of the cause.
Identify the friendly strategic and operational centers of gravity and provide guidance to subordinates for protecting them	National will, military force concentration, and alliance	Public support, force protection, neutrality or legitimacy.
Incorporate the combatant commander's strategic intent and operational focus.	Shared vision of intent and desired end state focuses on overwhelming combat power	Shared vision of intent and desired end state focuses on legitimacy - limited use of force.
Serve as the basis for subordinate planning and clearly define what constitutes success, including conflict termination objectives and potential post hostilities activities.	Clear task and purpose for subordinate units focused on destruction of enemy forces. Structured using the battlefield framework.	Clear task and purpose for subordinate units focused on impartiality, restraint and legitimacy in order to deter and maintain peace.
Provide strategic direction; operational focus; and major, tasks, objectives, and concepts to subordinates.	Direction, focus, tasks, objectives, and concepts focus on quick and decisive combat action to achieve aims.	Direction, focus, tasks, objectives, and concepts focus on legitimacy, restraint in order to deter and promote peace.
Sequence a series of related major joint operations conducted in depth	Sequence operations using the key elements of operational design to mass combat power.	Smaller in scope, sequence operations using the key elements of operational design to deter conflict and promote peace
Achieve unity of effort with air, land, sea, space, and special operations forces in conjunction with interagency, multinational, nongovernmental, private voluntary, or United Nations forces.	Synchronize the capabilities of the joint force within the operational-level operating systems in order to maximize combat power at the decisive point - commonly recognized military objective.	Synchronize the capabilities of the joint force (usually smaller than conventional war) toward a commonly understood MOOTW objective. Less war fighting and more support focused based on mandates and TORs.
Establish the organization of subordinate forces and designate command relationships.	Combat force heavy task organization - focused on overwhelming combat power.	Support heavy task organization. Combat power sufficient for force protection.
Provide an orderly schedule of decisions	Decisions effectively support combat operations.	Decisions balance force protection with legitimacy.

ENDNOTES

[1] Franklin Margiotta, *Brassey's Encyclopedia of Military History and Biography*, (Washington D.C., 1994), pp. 515-516.

[2] Norman Polmar and Thomas Allen, *World War II America at War 1941-1945*, (New York, 1991), p. 586.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Robert Crowley and Geoffrey Parker, *The Reader's Companion to Military History*, (New York, 1996), p. 121.

[5] Margiotta, p. 515.

[6] Ibid.

[7] Polmar, p. 586.

[8] Margiotta, p. 515.

[9] Joint Chiefs of Staff, Joint Publication 3-0, *Doctrine for Joint Operations*, (Washington D.C., February 1995), p. I-2.

[10] Office of the Chairman, Joint Chiefs of Staff, *National Military Strategy of the United States*, (Washington D.C., February 1996), pp. 2-3.

[11] Joint Chiefs of Staff, Joint Publication 3-07, *Military Operations Other Than War*, (Washington D.C., April 1995), p. ix.

[12] Joint Publication 3-0, 1995, pp. III-4-III-5.

[13] Bruce Menning, "An Operator/Planner's Introduction to Operational Art," *Strategic, Operational, and Joint Environments Syllabus*, August 1995, p. 337.

[14] James Schneider, *The Theory of Operational Art*, (Kansas, 1988), p. 2.

[15] Joint Publication 3-0, 1995, p. GL-10. Army doctrine reflects this same definition on page 16 of the glossary in FM 100-7 *Decisive Force: The Army in Theater Operations*.

[16] Joint Publication 3-0, 1995, pp. III-9-III-24.

[17] U.S. Army, Field Manual 100-7, *Decisive Force: The Army in Theater Operations*, (Washington D.C., May 1995), pp. 4-0-4-3.

[18] Joint Chiefs of Staff, Joint Publication 5-00.1 *Doctrine for Joint Campaign Planning*, (Washington D.C., June 1992), pp. I-1-I-4.

[19] Joint Chiefs of Staff, Joint Publication 5-0 *Doctrine for Planning Joint Operations*, (Washington D.C., April 1995), p. II-19.

[20] Joint Publication 5-00.1, 1992, pp. II-2.

[21] Ibid. pp. II-1-II-2.

[22] Joint Publication 5-0, 1995, p. II-20. These fundamentals are also listed in Joint Pub 3-0 on page III-8.

[23] Carl von Clausewitz, *On War*, edited by Michael Howard and Peter Paret, (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1976), p. 595. Clausewitz states "one must keep the dominant characteristics of both belligerents in mind. Out of these characteristics a certain center of gravity develops, the hub of all power and movement , on which everything depends. That is the point against which all our energies should be directed." (Book 8, Chapter 4, p. 595.)

[24] U.S. Army, Field Manual 100-5, *Operations*, (Washington D.C., June 1993), p. 6-7.

[25] FM 100-7, 1995, p. 3-1. Joint Pub 3-0 does not address decisive points. FM 100-5 *Operations* defines decisive point as "a point , usually geographic in nature, that, when retained, provides a commander with a marked advantage over his opponent. Decisive points could also include other physical elements such as enemy formations, command posts, and communications nodes." This definition does not relate the relevance to centers of gravity.

[26] Ibid. Joint doctrine defines lines of operation as lines which define the directional orientation of the force in time and space in relation to the enemy. They connect the force with its base of operations and its objectives. (Joint Pub 1-02)

[27] FM 100-5, 1993, p. 6-8. Clausewitz states "The culminating point of victory is bound to recur in every future war in which the destruction of the enemy cannot be the military aim, and this will presumably be true of most wars. The national goal of all campaign plans, therefore, is the turning point at which attack becomes defense. If one

were to go beyond that point, it would not merely be a useless effort which could not add to success. It would in fact be a damaging one, to show that such reactions usually have completely disproportionate effects. (*On War*, Book VII, p. 570)

[28] FM 100-7, 1995, p. 3-1.

[29] Ibid., pp. 3-1-3-2.

[30] FM 100-5, 1993, p. 6-9-6-10. Deception is those measures designed to mislead the enemy by manipulation, distortion, or falsification of evidence to induce him to react in a manner prejudicial to his interests or more vulnerable to the effects of weapons, maneuver, and operations of his enemy. (FM 101-5-1, p. 79.)

[31] FM 100-7, 1995, p. 3-2.

[32] Ibid., p. 3-2.

[33] Ibid., p. 3-3. A phase is a specific part of an operation that is different from those that precede or follow. Phasing assists in planning and controlling and may be indicated by time, distance, terrain, or occurrence of an event. (FM 101-5-1, p. 210.)

[34] FM 100-5, 1993, p. 6-9.

[35] FM 100-7, 1995, p. 3-3.

[36] Ibid., p. 3-4.

[37] Joint Chiefs of Staff, Joint Publication 3-07 *Military Operations Other Than War*, (Washington D.C., April 1995), p. I-1.

[38] Ibid., p. ix. This publication dedicates a section to defining each of these operations. Joint publishers are in the process of developing a series of manual to address these operations specifically.

[39] Robert D. Kaplan, *The Ends of The Earth*, (New York, 1996), pp. 8-10. Robert Kaplan does not claim to be a theorist. His work focuses on observing this environment as a travel writer and attempting to uncover a paradigm which organizes his observations.

[40] Office of the Secretary of Defense, *National Security Strategy of the United States*, (Washington D.C., February 1996), p. i. The National Security Strategy focuses on new threats and new opportunities, its central goals are to enhance our security with military forces that are ready to fight and with effective representation abroad, bolster America's economic revitalization, and promote democracy abroad.

[41] *National Military Strategy of the United States*, 1995, pp. 2-3. This document highlights three components of military strategy: peacetime engagement, deterrence and conflict prevention, and fighting and winning our nation's wars. Peacetime engagement and deterrence and conflict prevention focus on MOOTW. Peacetime engagement includes military to military contacts, nation assistance, security assistance, humanitarian operations, counter-drug, counter-terrorism, and peacekeeping. Deterrence and conflict prevention includes nuclear deterrence, regional alliances, crisis response, arms control, confidence-building measures, noncombatant evacuation operations, sanctions enforcement, and peace enforcement.

[42] William W. Mendel and Graham H. Turbiville, Jr., The CINCs' Strategies: Planning for a New Threat Environment, (Fort Leavenworth, KS, 1995), p. 5. This information is taken from Chapter III, Assessing The Regional and Global Threat Environment. The chapter focuses on the current and anticipated dangers to U.S. interests within the CINCs' domains. This assessment is based on interviews with CINC planners and reviews of official and independent assessments of the regional and global security environment.

[43] Ibid. pp. 11-12. Sub-Saharan Africa also received extensive focus in Robert Kaplan's book *The Ends of The Earth*.

[44] Ibid. p. 12.

[45] Kenneth Allard, Somalia Operations: Lessons Learned, (Washington D.C., January 1995), pp. 12-13.

[46] Ibid., p. 14.

[47] Ibid.

[48] Center for Army Lessons Learned (CALL), *Operation Restore Hope Lessons Learned Report*, (Fort Leavenworth, KS, May 1993), p. 2.

[49] Allard, p. 14.

[50] Ibid., p. 15.

[51] CALL, *Operation Restore Hope Lessons Learned Report*, 1993, pp. 1-5.

[52] Allard, p. 15-16.

[53] Ibid. Allard points out that clear UN mandates are critical to the planning of the mission because they shape the basic political guidance given to US forces by our National Command Authority (NCA). A clear mandate shapes not only the mission (the what) that we perform but the way we carry it out (the how).

[54] Ibid. p. 17.

[55] Ibid. p. 18.

[56] CALL, *Operation Restore Hope Lessons Learned Report*, 1993, p. 4.

[57] Allard, pp. 17-18.

[58] Ibid.

[59] Ibid., p. 19.

[60] United Nations Publication, "UNOSOM II Takes 'Decisive Action' to Restore Peace," *UN Chronicle*, September 1993, pp. 4-6.

[61] Allard, p. 20.

[62] United States Atlantic Command, Operation Uphold Democracy Joint After Action Report (JAAR), (Virginia, 1995), p. 6.

[63] Ibid., p. 6.

[64] Ibid.

[65] Ibid., p. 2. Operation Uphold Democracy illustrated the advances in joint operations. This included the formation of four separate joint task forces: 120, 160, 180, and 190.

[66] Ibid., p. 7.

[67] Ibid., p. 8.

[68] Ibid., pp. 2-3.

[69] Sean Naylor, "The Invasion That Never Was," *Army Times*, February 26, 1996, p. 12.

[70] JAAR, *Operation Uphold Democracy*, 1995, p. 3.

[71] Ibid., p. 4.

[72] Ibid., p. 2.

[73] U.S. Army, *Field Manual 100-23, Peace Operations*, (Washington D.C., December 1994), pp. 17-18.

[74] Jay M. Smith, *Operational Art in Military Operations Other Than War*, (Newport, Rhode Island, 1995), p. 3.

[75] Horace Hunter, *An Analysis of The Application of The Principles of Military Operations Other Than War (MOOTW) in Somalia*, (Langley AFB, 1994), pp. 2-3.

[76] CALL, *Operation Restore Hope Lessons Learned Report*, 1993, pp. 3-4.

[77] William W. Mendel, "The Haiti Contingency," *Military Review*, January 1994, pp. 48-49.

[78] JAAR, *Operation Uphold Democracy*, 1995, p. 3.

[79] Ronald M. D'Amura, "Campaigns: The Essence of Operational Warfare," *Parameters*, Vol. XVII, No 2, Summer 1987, p. 43.

[80] Smith, pp. 6-7.

[81] Charles P. Ferry, "Mogadishu, October 1993: Personal Account of a Rifle Company XO," *Infantry*, September-October 1994, p. 26.

[82] Mendel, p. 52. Notable units include the Headquarters Defense Force (formerly the Presidential Guard) of five infantry companies, and an independent heavy weapons company (mortars, armored vehicles, and artillery) all located in Port-au-Prince. The metropolitan police have ten companies located ion the capital, responsible for routine police activities such as maintaining order and traffic control, as well as countering drug smuggling.

[83] FM 100-5, 1993, p. G-1. Clausewitz states that since the essence of war is fighting, and since the battle is the fight of the main force, the battle must always be considered as the true center of gravity of war. (Clausewitz, *On War*, p. 248) This passage illustrates the war focus of centers of gravity. The concept also provides a valuable analysis tool in MOOTW because it focuses the planning effort on the most critical aspects of the conflict.

[84] Carl von Clausewitz, 1984, p. 248.

[85] Smith, pp. 8-10.

[86] Lou L. Marich, *Centers of Gravity in OOTW: A Useful Tool or Just a Black Hole*, (Fort Leavenworth, KS, 1995), p. 28.

[87] Ibid.

[88] Allard, p. 20.

[89] FM 100-5, 1993, p. 6-1. This manual expands the definition to include: a military end state includes the required conditions that, when achieved, attain the strategic objectives or pass the main effort to other instruments of national power to achieve the final strategic end state. The end state describes what the NCA wants the situation to be when operations conclude - both military operations, as well as those where the military is in support of other instruments of national power.

[90] CALL, *Operation Restore Hope Lessons Learned*, 1993, p. 1-14. Defining the military conditions which achieve the desired end state is difficult. It's tough, when preparing for war, where the levels of war (strategic, operational, and tactical) area relatively well understood and objectives can be expressed in military terms; but, it's even tougher when preparing for operations other than war.

[91] Kevin C. Benson and Christopher B. Thrash, "Declaring Victory: Planning Exit Strategies for Peace Operations," *Parameters*, Autumn 1996, p. 70.

[92] Ibid., p. 72.

[93] Ibid., pp. 73-74.

[94] Allard, p. 17.

[95] FM 100-7, 1995, p. B-2. This FM includes a format for a campaign and major operations plan. (Appendix B and C). FM 100-23, Peace Operations, includes a format for an MOOTW campaign plan at Appendix E.

[96] Ibid. p. B-3.

[97] CALL, Operation Restore Hope Lessons Learned Report, 1993, pp. 3-4.

[98] FM 100-23, 1994, p. 16.

[99] JAAR, *Operation Uphold Democracy*, 1995, p. 2-8.

[100] FM 100-23, 1994, p. 20-21. Chapter 2, Command, Control, Coordination and Liaison, highlights organization and control structure of MOOTW. This includes unilateral, multinational, and United Nations operations. The challenge is coordination and developing a shared vision between multiple international units, civilian organizations, and interagencies. Liaison and Civil-Military operations help with this coordination.

[101] Allard, pp. 22-24.

[102] Ibid.

[103] JAAR, *Operation Uphold Democracy*, 1995, pp. 7, 71.

[104] Joint Publication 3-0, 1995, p. xi-xii.

[105] Joint Publication 3-07, 1995, p. IV-1-IV-12.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books and Documents

Allard, Kenneth. *Somalia Operations: Lessons Learned.* Washington, D.C.: National Defense University Press, 1995.

Boutros-Gali, Boutros. *An Agenda for Peace 1995 (Second Edition).* New York: United Nations, 1995.

Cheney, Dick. *Defense Strategy for The 1990s: The Regional Strategy.* Washington D.C: Department of Defense, 1993.

Clausewitz, Carl. *On War.* Edited and Translated by Michael Howard and Peter Paret. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1976.

Clinton William. *A Time For Peace.* Washington D.C.: Office of The President of The United States of America, 1995.

Crowley, Robert and Parker, Geoffrey. *The Reader's Companion to Military History.* New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1996.

Dennehy, Edward J., *A Blue Helmet Combat Force.* National Security Program Policy Analysis Paper 93-01. Cambridge: Harvard University, John F. Kennedy School of Government, 1993.

Evans, Gareth J. *Cooperating for Peace: The Global Agenda for the 1990's and Beyond.* St. Leonards, NSW, Australia: Allen & Unwin, 1993.

Hirsch, John L. and Oakley, Robert B. *Somalia and Operation Restore Hope.* Washington, D.C.: United States Institute of Peace Press, 1995.

Houghton, Robert B. and Trinka, Frank G. *Multinational Peacekeeping in the Middle East.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of State, Foreign Service Institute, 1984.

Hunter, Horace. *Analysis of Application of Principles of MOOTW in Somalia (White Paper).* Langley AFB, 1994.

Kaplan, Robert D. *The Ends of The Earth.* New York: Random House, 1995.

Kissinger, Henry. *Years of Upheaval.* Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1982.

Mackinlay, John. "Defining a Role Beyond Peacekeeping." *Military Implications of United Nations Peacekeeping Operations, McNair Paper Seventeen.* Washington D.C.: National Defense University, 1993.

Margiotta, Franklin. *Brassey's Encyclopedia of Military History.* Washington: Brassey's, 1994.

Mendel, William and Banks, Floyd. *Campaign Planning.* Carlisle Barracks, PA: Strategic Studies Institute: US Army War College, 1988.

Mendel, William and Turbiville, Graham. *The CINCs' Strategies: Planning for a New Threat Environment.* Fort Leavenworth, KS, 1995.

Moodie, Michael and Perry, Charles M. "Proliferation and Ethnic Conflict: A highly Combustible Mixture." *Ethnic Conflict and Regional Instability: Implications for US Policy and Army Roles and Missions.* Pennsylvania: Carlisle Barracks, US Army War College, Strategic Studies Institute, 1994.

Office of the Chairman, Joint Chiefs of Staff. *National Military Strategy of the United States.* Washington D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1995.

Office of the Secretary of Defense. *National Security Strategy of the United States.* Washington D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1996.

Petit, Michael. *Peacekeepers at War.* Winchester, MA: Faber and Faber, Inc., 1986.

Polmar, Norman and Allen, Thomas. *World War II: America at War 1941-1945.* New York: Random House, 1991.

Quinn, Dennis J. "Peace Support Operations: Definitions and Implications." *Peace Support Operations and the U.S. Military.* Washington, D.C.: National Defense University Press, 1994.

Renner, Michael.. *Critical Juncture: The Future of Peacekeeping.* Worldwatch Paper 114. Washington: Worldwatch Institute, 1993.

Stofft, William A. and Guertner, Gary L. *Ethnic Conflict: Implications for the Army in the Future.* Pennsylvania: U.S. Army War College, 1994.

Sun Tzu (Translated by Samuel B. Griffith). *The Art of War.* London: Oxford University Press, 1963.

Tharoor, Shashi. *Peacekeeping: Principles, Problems, Prospects*. Research Report 9-93. Newport: US Naval War College, Center for Naval Warfare Studies, Strategic Research Department, 1993.

Thomas, BG Trent N. "Global Assessment of Current and Future Trends in Ethnic and ReligiousConflict." *Ethnic Conflict and Regional Instability: Implications for US Policy and Army Roles and Missions*. Pennsylvania: Carlisle Barracks, US Army War College, Strategic Studies Institute, 1994.

U.S. Army Combined Arms Command. Center for Army Lessons Learned. *Operations Other Than War: Operation Restore Hope*. CALL Lessons Learned Report. Fort Leavenworth, KS: May 1993.

_____. *Drawing a Line in the Mud*. CALL Newsletter No. 96-5. Fort Leavenworth, KS: May 1996.

_____. *Operation Able Century Lessons Learned Report*. CALL Lessons Learned Report. Fort Leavenworth, KS: October 1994.

_____. *Operation Uphold Democracy Initial Impressions Report*. CALL Lessons Learned Report. Fort Leavenworth, KS: December 1994.

_____. *Operations Other Than War, Volume IV, Peace Operations*. CALL Newsletter No. 93-8. Fort Leavenworth, KS: December 1993.

_____. *Somalia Operations Other Than War*. CALL Lessons Learned Report. Fort Leavenworth, KS: January 1993.

_____. *U.S. Army Operations in Support of UNOSOM II*. CALL Lessons Learned Report. Fort Leavenworth, KS: March1994.

U.S. Atlantic Command. *Operation Uphold Democracy Joint After Action Report (JAAR)*. Norfolk, VA: June 1995.

U.S. Marine Corps Combat Development Command. *MCCDC Collection and Lessons Learned Project, Operation Restore Hope Project Report*. Quantico, VA: United States Marine Corps, 1993.

Wilson, Brigadier John B. "Observations on Peacekeeping and Peacemaking in the Former Yugoslavia." *International Peacekeeping, Building on Cambodian Experience*. Canberra: Australian Defense Force Academy, Australian Defense Studies Center, 1994.

Warner, Daniel *New Dimensions of Peacekeeping*. Boston: Martinus Nijhoff
    Publishers, 1995.

Wilson, Brigadier John B. "Lessons from Operations in Yugoslavia." *Peacekeeping:*
    Challenges for the Future. Canberra: Australian Defense Force Academy,
    Australian Defense Studies Center, 1993

Monographs

Coffin, Timothy R. *How Big Is The Canvas For Operational Art?*. Fort Leavenworth,
    KS: US Army Command and General Staff College, 1994.

Heredia, Michael D. *Building A Campaign: The Essential Elements of Operational*
    Design. Fort Leavenworth, KS: US Army Command and General Staff College,
    1995.

Gebhard, Bruce J. *Campaign Planning For Peace Enforcement Operations*. Fort
    Leavenworth, KS: US Army Command and General Staff College, 1994.

Marich, Lou. *Centers of Gravity in OOTW: A Useful Tool or Just A Black Hole?* Fort
    Leavenworth, KS: US Army Command and General Staff College, 1995.

Schneider, James J. *The Theory of Operational Art*. Fort Leavenworth, KS: US Army
    Command and General Staff College, 1988.

Schneider, James J. *Vulcan's Anvil: The American Civil War and The Emergence of*
    Operational Art. Fort Leavenworth, KS: US Army Command and General Staff
    College, 1991.

Schuster, Daniel J. *Achieving Victory in Peace Operations: An Application for*
    Clausewitz's Theory of Culmination. Fort Leavenworth, KS: US Army Command
    and General Staff College, 1994.

Schuster, Daniel J. *Peacekeeping, Peace Enforcement, and the Operational Art*. Fort
    Leavenworth, KS: US Army Command and General Staff College, 1995.

Smith, Jay M. *Operational Art in Military Operations Other Than War*. Newport, RI,
    Naval War College, 1995.

Swain, Richard M. *Filling the Void: The Operational Art and The US Army*. Fort
    Leavenworth, KS: US Army Command and General Staff College, 1991.

Periodical Articles

Benson, Kevin C. and Thrash, Christopher B. "Declaring Victory: Planning Exit Strategies for Peace Operations." *Parameters*, Autumn 1996, pp. 69-80.

Blodgett, John Q. "The Future of UN Peacekeeping." *Washington Quarterly*, Vol. 14. Winter 1991, pp. 207-220.

Bremmer, J.S., and Snell, J.M. "The Changing Face of Peacekeeping." *Canadian Defense Quarterly*, Vol. 22. August 1992, pp. 6-11.

Connaughton, Richard. "Time to clear the Doctrine Dilemma." *Janes' Defense Weekly*, Vol. 21, 9 April 1994, pp. 19-20.

D'Amura, Ronald. "Campaigns: The Essence of Operational Warfare." *Parameters*. Vol. XVII, No 2, Summer 1987, pp. 42-51.

Dobbie, Charles. "A Concept for Post-Cold War Peacekeeping." *Survival*, Vol. 36, Autumn 1994, pp. 121-148.

Elder, Donald. "Force Projection and Combined Arms." *Armor*, November-December 1993, pp. 17-20.

Ferry, Charles P. "Mogadishu October 1993: Personal Account of a Rifle Company XO." *Infantry*, September-October 1994, pp. 23-31.

Goldman, "A Changing World, A Changing UN." *Military Review*, Vol. LXXIV, No. 9, September 1994, pp. 1-8.

Haekkerup, Hans. "Peacekeeping, A Danish Perspective." *International Defense Review*, (Defense 1995), p. 103.

Hagglund, Gustav. "Peace-Keeping in a Modern War Zone." *Survival*, Vol. 32, Number 3, May-June 1990, pp. 233-240.

Holst, Johan J. "Enhancing Peace-Keeping Operations." *Survival*, Vol. 32, Number 3, May-June 1990, pp. 264-275.

James, Alan. "The History of Peacekeeping: An Analytical Perspective." *Canadian Defense Quarterly*, Vol. 23, Number 1, September 1993, pp. 10-17.

Mackenzie, Lewis. "Military Realities of UN Peacekeeping Operations." *The RUSI Journal*, Vol. 138, February 1993, pp. 21-24.

Mackinlay, John. "Improving Multifunctional Forces." *Survival*, Vol. 36, Number 3, Autumn 1994, pp. 149-173.

Mackinlay, John. "Powerful Peace-Keepers." *Survival*, Vol. 36, Number 3, Autumn 1994, pp. 149-173.

Mackinlay, John, and Chopra, Jarat. "Second Generation Multinational Operations." *Washington Quarterly*, Vol. 15, Summer 1992, pp. 113-131.

Mendel, William. "The Haiti Contingency." *Military Review*, January 1994, pp. 48-57.

Metz, Steven. "A Wake for Clausewitz: Toward a Philosophy of 21st-Century Warfare." *Parameters*, Winter 1994-95, pp. 126-132.

Munro, Sir Alan. "A New World Disorder? Crisis Management Post-Cold War." *The RUSI Journal*, February 1995, pp. 17-21.

Naylor, Sean. "The Invasion That Never Was." *Army Times*, February 26, 1996, pp. 12-16.

Roberts, Adam. "The Crisis in UN Peacekeeping." *Survival*, Vol. 36, Number 3, Autumn 1994, pp. 93-120.

Schneider, James J. and Izzo Lawrence L. "Clausewitz's Elusive Center of Gravity." *Parameters*, September 1987, pp. 46-57.

Sullivan, Brian R. "Special Operations and LIC in the 21st Century: The Joint Strategic Perspective." *Special Warfare*, May 1996, pp. 1-7.

Toscano, Roberto. "Peacekeeping in the New International Situation." *International Spectator*, Vol. 28, January-March 1993, pp. 47-60.

Urquhart, Brian. "Beyond the 'Sheriff's Posse'." *Survival*, Vol. 32, Number 3, May-June 1990, pp. 196-205.

Warden, John A. "The Enemy as a System". *Airpower Journal*, Spring 1995, pp. 42-55.

Weiss, Thomas G. "UN Military Operations After the Cold War: Some Conceptual Problems." *Canadian Defense Quarterly*, Vol. 23, September 1993, pp. 5-9.

Manuals

Field Manual 100-5, *Operations*. Washington D.C.: HQ Department of the Army, 1993.

Field Manual 100-7, *Decisive Force: The Army in Theater Operations*. Washington D.C.: HQ Department of the Army, 1995.

Field Manual 100-23, *Peace Operations*. Washington, D.C.: HQ Department of the Army, 1994.

Joint Pub 1, *Joint Warfare of the US Armed Force*. Washington, D.C.: Joint Chiefs of Staff, 1991.

Joint Pub 0-2, *Unified Action Armed Forces (UNAFF)*. Washington, D.C.: Joint Chiefs of Staff, 1995.

Joint Pub 3-0, *Doctrine for Joint Operations*. Washington, D.C.: Joint Chiefs of Staff, 1995.

Joint Pub 3-07, *Joint Military Operations Other Than War*. Washington, D.C.: Joint Chiefs of Staff, 1994.

Joint Pub 5-0, *Doctrine for Planning Joint Operations*. Washington, D.C.: Joint Chiefs of Staff, 1995.

Joint Pub 5-00.1, *Doctrine For Joint Campaign Planning*. Washington D.C.: Joint Chiefs of Staff, 1992.